inflammation promotes tumorigenesis by inducing oncogene miRNAs and suppressing tumor suppressor miRNAs simultaneously, possibly through different mechanisms.

It has been shown that miR-7 functions as a tumor suppressor in glioblastoma, breast cancer, and lung cancer [93–97]. The expression level of miR-7 is downregulated both in gastritis and gastric tumors, indicating that miR-7 is an inflammation-dependent tumor suppressor miRNA (Fig. 5a). Moreover, the miR-7 level is significantly decreased in *Helicobacter*-infected inflamed mouse gastric mucosa compared with control inflamed stomachs. In a normal stomach, the basal level of miR-7 is found in undifferentiated gastric epithelial cells; however, its expression level increases during the differentiation of epithelial cells. Accordingly, it is possible that miR-7 plays a role in cell differentiation.

In human gastric cancer tissues, miR-7 expression is downregulated in 65 % of cases. Moreover, the expression levels of miR-7 in human gastric cancers are inversely correlated with those of the inflammatory cytokines IL-1β and TNF-α (Fig. 5b). Namely, miR-7 expression is downregulated more significantly in high TNF-α or high IL-1β gastric cancers compared with low TNF-α or low IL-1β gastric cancers. Accordingly, it is possible that the severity of inflammatory responses is correlated with effective downregulation of miR-7.

Moreover, transfection of precursor miR-7 in gastric cancer cells results in decreased cell proliferation and suppression of soft agar colony formation. These results indicate that miR-7 functions as a tumor suppressor in gastric cancer cells as well. These results, taken together, indicate that miR-7 is an important factor that links inflammation and cancer development, namely, inflammation induces downregulation of the miR-7 expression, which may suppress the differentiation of epithelial cells and thus increase tumorigenicity (Fig. 5c). It has been shown that EGFR mRNA is a miR-7 target gene [93, 95]. Consistently, in gastric cancer cells, precursor miR-7 transfection causes downregulation of the EGFR expression. Moreover, p21-activated kinase 1, Raf1, and insulin-like growth factor I receptor have been identified as possible miR-7 target genes that are upregulated in cancer cells [94–96]. Using the expression profile data set [58], we identified novel miR-7 target genes, including *Lphn2*, *Basp1*, and *MafG*. It is possible that upregulation of these genes by miR-7 downregulation contributes to gastric tumorigenesis, although the role of these factors in cancer remains to be investigated in the future.

Conclusions

Accumulating evidence has established that inflammatory responses are important for cancer development. As discussed in this review article, in vivo model systems such as *K19-C2mE* and *Gan* model mice are important for investigating the role of inflammatory responses in cancer development because the tumor-promoting microenvironment consisting of residential fibroblasts and bone marrow-derived cells is constructed in tumor tissues. Using such a model system, we identified several novel mechanisms underlying PGE_2-associated inflammation in gastric tumorigenesis, i.e., EGFR activation through the induction of EGFR ligands and ADAM proteases and downregulation of tumor suppressor miRNAs, including miR-7. On the other hand, most malignant cancer cells that carry accumulated genetic alterations do not require expression of COX-2 or EGFR ligands in stromal cells because oncogenic mutations cause induction or activation of these endogenous pathways in the tumor cells. For example, *ras* mutation causes constitutive expression of COX-2 and activation of EGFR signaling pathway. It is thus possible that PGE_2-associated inflammatory responses are more important for cancer development during promotion stage rather than malignant progression stage. Accordingly, regulation of such PGE_2-associated inflammatory responses will be an effective preventive strategy against gastric cancer development.

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ORIGINAL ARTICLE

Inflammation-induced repression of tumor suppressor miR-7 in gastric tumor cells

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Inflammation has an important role in cancer development through various mechanisms. It has been shown that dysregulation of microRNAs (miRNAs) that function as oncogenes or tumor suppressors contributes to tumorigenesis. However, the relationship between inflammation and cancer-related miRNA expression in tumorigenesis has not yet been fully understood. Using *K19-C2mE* and *Gan* mouse models that develop gastritis and gastritis-associated tumors, respectively, we found that 21 miRNAs were upregulated, and that 29 miRNAs were downregulated in gastric tumors in an inflammation-dependent manner. Among these miRNAs, the expression of miR-7, a possible tumor suppressor, significantly decreased in both gastritis and gastric tumors. Moreover, the expression of miR-7 in human gastric cancer was inversely correlated with the levels of interleukin-1β and tumor necrosis factor-α, suggesting that miR-7 downregulation is related to the severity of inflammatory responses. In the normal mouse stomach, miR-7 expression was at a basal level in undifferentiated gastric epithelial cells, and was induced during differentiation. Moreover, transfection of a miR-7 precursor into gastric cancer cells suppressed cell proliferation and soft agar colony formation. These results suggest that suppression of miR-7 expression is important for maintaining the undifferentiated status of gastric epithelial cells, and thus contributes to gastric tumorigenesis. Although epigenetic changes were not found in the CpG islands around miR-7-1 of gastritis and gastric tumor cells, we found that activated macrophage-derived small molecule(s) (<3 kDa) are responsible for miR-7 repression in gastric cancer cells. Furthermore, the miR-7 expression level significantly decreased in the inflamed gastric mucosa of *Helicobacter*-infected mice, whereas it increased in the stomach of germfree *K19-C2mE* and *Gan* mice wherein inflammatory responses were suppressed. Taken together, these results indicate that downregulation of tumor suppressor miR-7 is a novel mechanism by which the inflammatory response promotes gastric tumorigenesis.

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Keywords: miR-7; gastric cancer; inflammation; macrophages

Introduction

It has been established that inflammatory responses contribute to cancer development through various mechanisms (Coussens and Werb, 2002). The expression of cyclooxygenase-2 (COX-2), a rate-limiting enzyme for prostaglandin biosynthesis, has an important role in both inflammation and cancer (Wang and DuBois, 2010). Using genetic mouse models, we previously demonstrated that induction of COX-2 and its downstream product, prostaglandin E_2 (PGE_2), is required for gastrointestinal tumorigenesis (Sonoshita *et al.*, 2001; Oshima *et al.*, 2006). The COX-2/PGE_2 pathway, together with a bacterial infection, induces inflammatory responses in the stomach through the recruitment of macrophages, which promotes gastric tumorigenesis (Oshima *et al.*, 2011). However, it remains to be fully elucidated precisely how such inflammatory responses contribute to the promotion of gastric tumors.

MicroRNAs (miRNAs) are a class of single-stranded small noncoding RNAs that regulate gene expression by post-transcriptional interference of specific mRNAs (Ambros, 2004; Bartel, 2004). Through their regulation of cancer-related gene expression, miRNAs can function as either oncogenes or tumor suppressors (Esquela-Kerscher and Slack, 2006; Ventura and Jacks, 2009). Dysregulation of miRNAs in cancer has been shown to be associated with genomic/epigenetic alterations or transcriptional/post-transcriptional mechanisms (Di Leva and Croce, 2010). Moreover, expression of several miRNAs, including oncogenic miRNAs, has been shown to be induced by inflammatory

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responses (Sonkoly and Pivarcsi, 2011). For example, miR-155 is induced in macrophages by nuclear factor-κB, interferon-β or Toll-like receptor signaling (O'Connell *et al.*, 2007; Tili *et al.*, 2007), whereas miR-21 is induced by Stat3, a transcription factor activated by interleukin-6 (IL-6) (Iliopoulos *et al.*, 2010). On the other hand, the mechanism responsible for the downregulation of tumor-suppressor miRNA expression in the inflammatory microenvironment has not been fully understood.

Herein, we examined the expression of miRNAs in mouse models of gastritis and gastric tumors, which were developed in *K19-C2mE* and *Gan* mice, respectively (Oshima *et al.*, 2004, 2006). We found the expression level of miR-7 to significantly decrease in gastric tumors in an inflammation-dependent manner. It has been shown that miR-7 has a tumor-suppressor role in several cancers, including glioblastoma, breast cancer and lung cancer (Kefas *et al.*, 2008; Reddy *et al.*, 2008; Webster *et al.*, 2009; Jiang *et al.*, 2010; Saydam *et al.*, 2011). In this manuscript, we demonstrate that miR-7 is induced during the differentiation of normal gastric epithelial cells, and it also has a tumor-suppressor role in the stomach. These results suggest that downregulation of tumor suppressor miR-7 is one of the tumor-promoting mechanisms underlying the role of inflammation in gastric tumorigenesis.

Results

Inflammation-dependent dysregulation of miRNAs in gastric tumors

To examine whether miRNA expression is dysregulated in gastric tumors by inflammatory responses, we examined the miRNA expression profiles in wild-type mouse stomachs, *K19-C2mE* mouse gastritis and *Gan* mouse gastric tumors by a microarray analysis. In *Gan* mouse gastric tumors, 50 miRNAs were upregulated (>2.0-fold), whereas 42 miRNAs were downregulated (<0.5-fold) compared with the wild-type mouse stomach level (Figure 1a and Supplementary Table 1). Notably, 21 and 29 miRNAs showed upregulation or downregulation, respectively, in both gastritis and gastric tumors. Therefore, it is possible that dysregulation of these miRNAs is caused by inflammatory responses.

We confirmed the results of the microarray analysis by real-time reverse transcriptase–polymerase chain reaction (RT–PCR). In all, 10 miRNAs randomly selected from the upregulated and downregulated miRNAs (Figure 1a, boxed) showed the same dysregulation pattern in both gastritis and gastric tumors (Figure 1b). Importantly, miR-155 and miR-21, which function as oncogenes (Volinia *et al.*, 2006) were upregulated, whereas miR-145 and miR-7, which function as tumor suppressors (Kefas *et al.*, 2008; Sachdeva *et al.*, 2009), were downregulated in both gastritis and gastric tumors (Figures 1a and b). This suggests that inflammation can induce not only upregulation of oncogenic miRNAs but also downregulation of tumor-suppressor miRNAs.

We next picked up 74 miRNAs that were not dysregulated in *K19-C2mE* gastritis compared with the wild-type normal stomach (Supplementary Table 2). Among them, three miRNAs were upregulated in *Gan* mouse tumors compared with *K19-C2mE* gastritis tissue samples (>2.0-fold), whereas three miRNA were downregulated (<0.5-fold) (Figure 1c). It is possible that expression of these miRNAs is dysregulated by carcinogenesis-specific mechanisms.

Induction of miR-7 during differentiation of gastric epithelial cells

We further examined the expression of miR-7, because its role(s) in the normal stomach and gastric cancer have never been examined. Gastric glands were isolated from the stomachs of the respective mouse models, and the miR-7 expression was examined by real-time RT–PCR. Notably, miR-7 levels were significantly lower in epithelial cells of *K19-C2mE* gastritis tissues and *Gan* mouse tumors compared with the wild-type mouse stomach (Figure 2a), indicating that miR-7 is predominantly expressed in epithelial cells in an inflammation-dependent manner.

When primary cultured gastric epithelial cells were passaged and maintained for 6 days, the cell morphology appeared to be differentiated, with enlarged and mucin-containing cytoplasm (Figure 2b). Consistently, the expression of differentiation markers, *Muc6* and *Muc5AC*, was elevated on day 6, whereas the expression of the Wnt target gene, *Sox9*, decreased (Figure 2c). These results indicate that cultured gastric epithelial cells underwent differentiation through passage and 6-day culture. Importantly, the miR-7 expression level increased significantly on day 6 to 6.5-fold, compared with the level observed on day 2.

We next examined the miR-7 level in the stomach during development. The expression level of miR-7 in the stomach increased significantly in 14-day-old and adult mice, to >6-fold of that in E15 embryos (Figure 2d). Conversely, expression of *CD44*, one of the Wnt target genes, decreased significantly during development. We confirmed by an immunohistochemistry that most epithelial cells in the gastric mucosa were Ki-67 positive on days 0 and 7, whereas proliferating cells were limited to the gland neck on day 14 and in adult mice (Figure 2e). Accordingly, the ratio of undifferentiated epithelial cells decreased during development. Taken together, these results indicate that miR-7 expression is induced in gastric epithelial cells during differentiation.

Tumor-suppressor role of miR-7 in gastric cancer development

We next examined miR-7 levels in human gastric cancers by real-time RT–PCR. The expression of miR-7 was downregulated in 18 out of 28 human gastric cancer tissue samples (64%) compared with paired non-tumor stomach tissue samples (Figure 3a), suggesting that miR-7 has a tumor-suppressor role in a subpopulation of gastric cancers. We next examined the expression

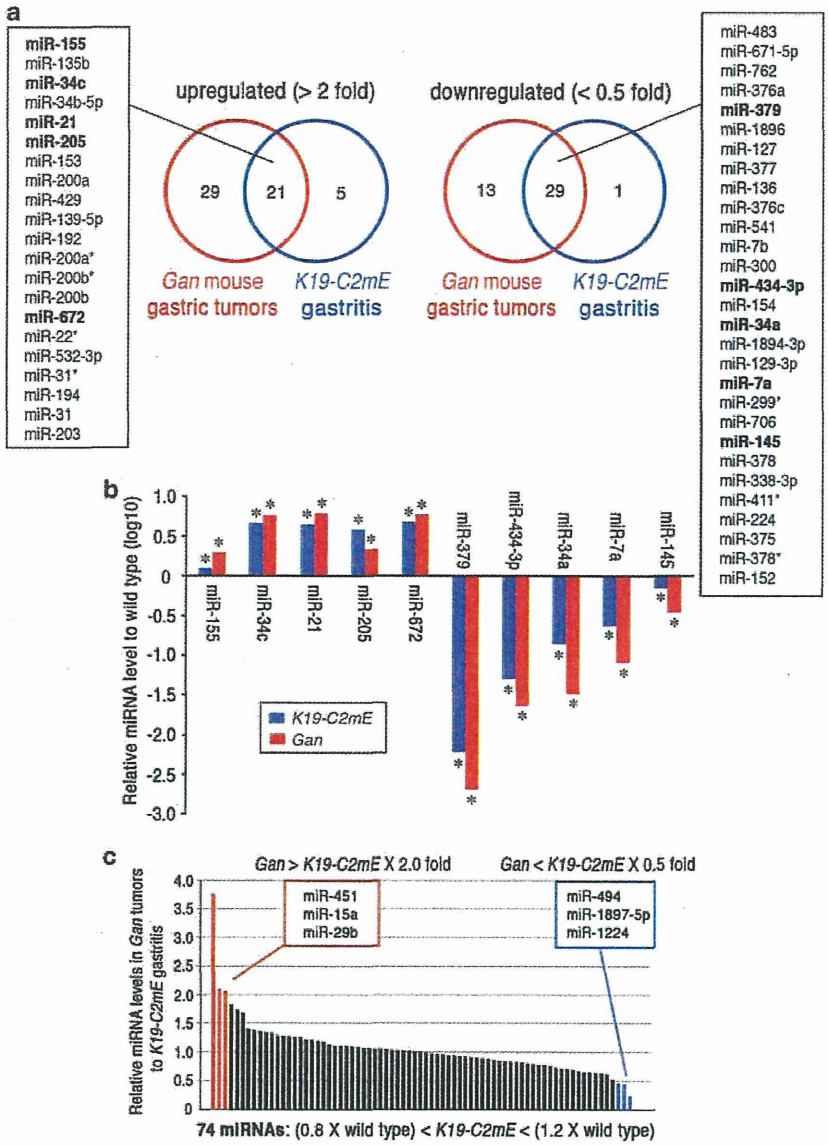

Figure 1 Inflammation-dependent dysregulation of miRNA expression in mouse gastric tumors. (**a**) Venn diagrams of the miRNAs that were upregulated (>2.0) and downregulated (<0.5) in *Gan* mouse gastric tumors and/or *K19-C2mE* mouse gastritis samples as determined by the microarray analysis are shown. The miRNAs listed in boxes were upregulated (left) or downregulated (right) in both gastric tumor and gastritis tissue samples. (**b**) The relative expression levels of selected miRNAs (indicated in bold in the list) for *K19-C2mE* mouse gastritis (blue bars) and *Gan* mouse gastric tumors (red bars) compared with the wild-type levels examined by real-time RT–PCR are shown as the log10 ratios. $*P<0.05$ versus the wild-type level. The expression levels of miRNAs were normalized to the Sno202 level. (**c**) The miRNA levels in *Gan* mouse tumors relative to those in *K19-C2mE* gastritis tissues examined by the microarray analysis are shown. Red and blue bars indicate upregulated (>2.0) and downregulated (<0.5) miRNAs, respectively, in *Gan* mouse tumors.

level of IL-1β and tumor necrosis factor (TNF)-α, major proinflammatory cytokines, and compared them with the miR-7 level. Importantly, expression levels of miR-7 were inversely correlated with those of IL-1β or TNF-α, suggesting that the downregulation of miR-7 is related to the severity of inflammatory responses (Figure 3b). We also found that miR-7 was markedly downregulated in four out of nine gastric cancer cells lines (Figure 3c).

To examine the tumor-suppressor role of miR-7 in gastric tumorigenesis, we transfected the precursor of miR-7, pre-miR-7, into AZ-521 and Kato-III gastric cancer cells and examined their proliferation and soft agar colony formation. We confirmed that pre-miR-7 transfection into reporter vector-transfected cells resulted in a significant decrease in luciferase activity, indicating an increase of mature miR-7 level (Supplementary Figure 1). Transfection of pre-miR-7

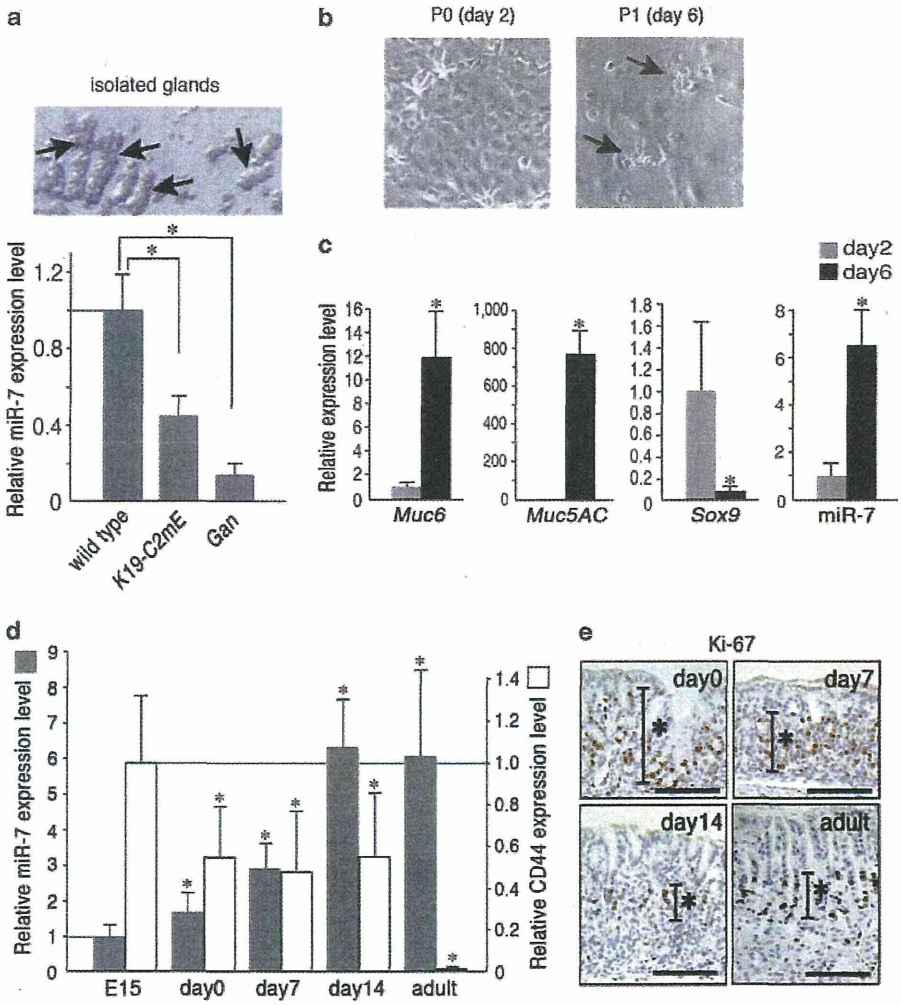

Figure 2 The induction of miR-7 expression in differentiated gastric epithelial cells. (**a**) A representative photograph of isolated gastric glands from wild-type mice (top, arrows). The expression levels of miR-7 in the isolated gastric glands of *K19-C2mE* and *Gan* mice relative to the wild-type level are shown (mean ± s.d.) (bottom). $*P<0.05$. (**b**) Representative photographs of primary cultured gastric epithelial cells on day 2 (passage 0: P0) and on day 6 (passage 1: P1) (original magnification, × 100). Arrows in P1 indicate mucin-containing enlarged cells on day 6. (**c**) The levels of *Muc6*, *Muc5AC* and *Sox9* mRNA and miR-7 in the primary cultured gastric epithelial cells on day 6 (closed bars) relative to the levels on day 2 (gray bars) are shown (mean ± s.d.). $*P<0.05$ versus the day 2 level. (**d**) The expression levels of miR-7 (gray bars) and *CD44* (open bars) in the stomach at the indicated ages relative to the levels in E15 embryos are shown (mean ± s.d.). $*P<0.05$ versus the E15 level. The expression levels of miR-7 were normalized to the Sno202 level. (**e**) Representative photographs of Ki-67 immunostaining in the glandular stomach of mice at the indicated ages. Asterisks indicate proliferative zones. Scale bars indicate 50 μm.

significantly decreased cell proliferation in both cell lines compared with control vector-transfected cells (Figure 3d). Moreover, pre-miR-7 transfection significantly suppressed soft agar colony formation in both cell lines (Figures 3e and f). These results strongly suggest that miR-7 has a tumor-suppressor role in gastric cancer development.

Repression of miR-7 in gastric cancer cells by macrophage-derived factor(s)

We detected primary (pri)-miR-7-1, pri-miR-7-2 and pri-miR-7b in the mouse normal stomach by real-time RT–PCR (Supplementary Figure 2), suggesting that mature miR-7 is processed from all these primary miR-7 in the normal gastric mucosa. MiR-7-1 is located in the intron of the *Hnrnpk* gene, and a CpG island is found in the promoter region of *Hnrnpk* (Supplementary Figure 3a). On the other hand, we could not determine CpG islands that regulate the transcription of miR-7-2 and miR-7b. We thus examined DNA methylation in the CpG islands in the *Hnrnpk* promoter region. Notably, DNA methylation levels in *K19-C2mE* gastritis and *Gan* mouse tumor tissues were not increased compared with the wild-type mouse stomach (Supplementary Figure 3a). Consistently, DNA methylation was not detected in the promoter region of the *HNRNPK* gene in human gastric cancer tissues (Figure 4a). We also examined the trimethylation of histone H3 at lysine 27 (H3K27me3) in

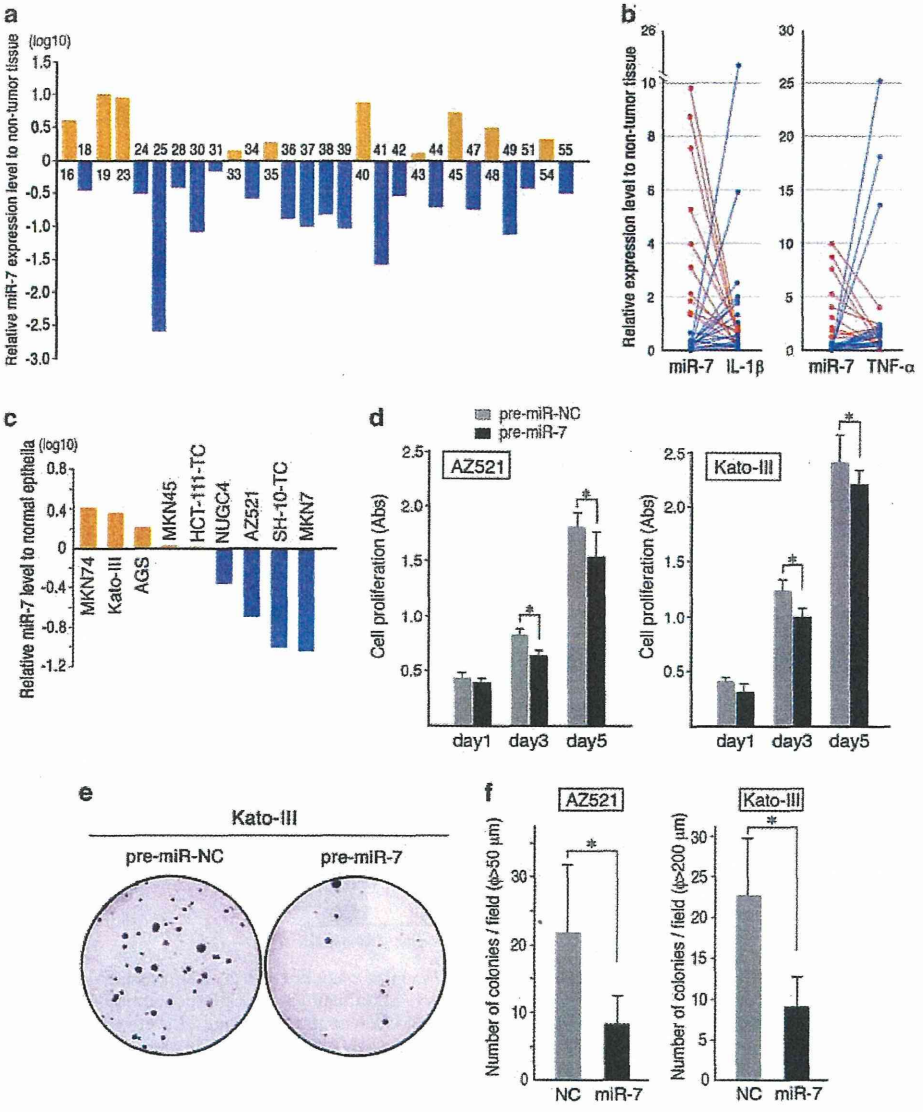

Figure 3 The tumor-suppressor roles of miR-7 in gastric cancer cells. (**a**) The relative miR-7 expression levels in the human gastric cancer tissue samples to the level of non-tumor stomach tissue samples are shown as the log10 ratios. The indicated numbers correspond to the patient ID in the clinicopathological data (Supplementary Table 3). (**b**) Comparison of the relative expression levels of miR-7 and IL-1β (left) or TNF-α (right) in gastric cancer tissues to the non-tumor stomach tissue levels in each patient is shown. Red and blue lines indicate that the expression of miR-7 was increased (>1.0) and decreased (<1.0) in the gastric cancers, respectively. (**c**) The relative expression levels of miR-7 in gastric cancer cell lines compared with the mean level in the human normal gastric epithelial cells are shown as the log10 ratios. The expression levels of miR-7 were normalized to those of U44. (**d**) The proliferation of control (gray bars) and pre-miR-7-transfected (closed bars) AZ521 cells and Kato-III cells at the indicated culture days are shown (mean ± s.d.). $^*P<0.05$. (**e**) Representative photographs of soft agar colonies in 6-well plates showing the pre-miR-NC- (left) and pre-miR-7-transfected (right) Kato-III cells. (**f**) The mean numbers of soft agar colonies larger than the indicated diameters in each well of 6-well plate of control (gray bars) and pre-miR-7-transfected (closed bars) AZ521 cells and Kato-III cells are shown (mean ± s.d.). $^*P<0.05$.

the upstream CpG islands of *Hnrnpk*. However, the H3K27me3 level was not increased in mouse gastritis and gastric tumors compared with the wild-type stomach (Figure 4b). These results indicate that DNA methylation and trimethylation of H3K27 are not involved in the downregulation of miR-7-1. Moreover, the genomic region including miR-7-1 was not deleted in human gastric cancer cells (Supplementary Figure 3b), suggesting that miR-7 downregulation in gastric cancer is not caused by genomic deletion.

We next examined whether activated macrophages have a role in the downregulation of miR-7, because the major source of proinflammatory cytokines in gastric tumors are macrophages (Oshima *et al.*, 2004, 2011). To monitor miR-7 activity, reporter vector-transfected cells were used. We confirmed that luciferase activity

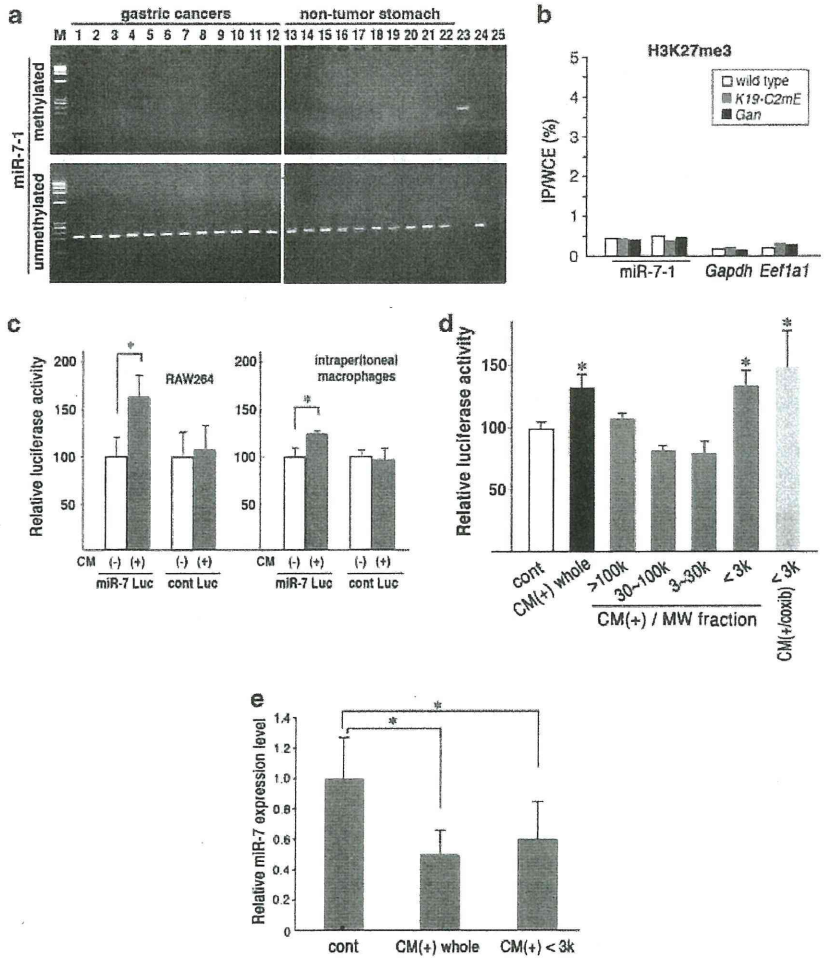

Figure 4 The mechanism responsible for the downregulation of miR-7 in gastric tumor cells. (**a**) Representative results of methylated (top) or unmethylated (bottom) status-specific PCR for miR-7-1. Lanes 1–12, human gastric cancer samples; lanes 13–22, non-tumor stomach samples; lane 23, methylated DNA control; lane 24, unmethylated DNA control; and lane 25, water control. (**b**) The results of ChIP-PCR analyses of miR-7-1 and the housekeeping genes, *Gapdh* and *Eef1a1*, for H3K27me3 in the gastric mucosa of respective genotype mice. The percentages of immunoprecipitated (*IP*)/whole-cell extracts (*WCE*) are shown for each primer set. (**c**) The luciferase activities of miR-7 Luc- or control Luc-transfected AZ521 reporter cells stimulated with CM(+) (gray bars) relative to those with CM(−) (open bars) are shown (mean ± s.d.). $*P<0.05$. The conditioned medium was prepared from RAW264 cells (left) or intraperitoneal macrophages (right). (**d**) The luciferase activities of miR-7 Luc-transfected AZ521 reporter cells stimulated with whole CM(+) (closed bars), CM(+) fractionated to the indicated molecular sizes (gray bars), or fractionated CM(+) to <3 kDa collected from celecoxib-treated and LPS-stimulated macrophages (light gray bar) relative to the control level (open bar) are shown (mean ± s.d.). $*P<0.05$ versus the control level. (**e**) The relative miR-7 expression levels examined by real-time RT–PCR in AZ521 cells stimulated with whole CM(+) or fractioned CM(+) <3 kDa relative to the control level are shown (mean ± s.d.). $*P<0.05$ versus the control level. The expression levels of miR-7 were normalized to the U44 level.

was increased significantly when the miR-7 inhibitor was transfected into reporter vector-transfected Kato-III cells (Supplementary Figure 1c), indicating that the luciferase reporter system was working. Reporter cells were then treated with the conditioned medium of lipopolysaccharide-stimulated RAW264 cells (CM(+)) or unstimulated RAW264 cells (CM(−)). Importantly, the luciferase activity increased significantly when cells were stimulated with CM(+), whereas the luciferase activity was not changed in control vector-transfected cells (Figure 4c). Similar results were obtained when CM(+) and CM(−) were prepared using mouse intraperitoneal macrophages. These results indicate that activated macrophage-derived factor(s) caused miR-7 downregulation in gastric cancer cells.

To identify macrophage-derived factor(s) that suppress miR-7 expression, reporter cells were stimulated with TNF-α, IL-1β, IL-6 or PGE_2. However, none of these factors caused an increase in luciferase activity (Supplementary Figure 4). We thus fractionated CM(+) by ultrafiltration, and separated by molecular weight. Interestingly, a CM(+) fraction of <3 kDa significantly increased the luciferase activity to a similar level as that induced by whole CM(+), whereas the other CM(+) fractions did not (Figure 4d). Moreover, the luciferase activity was still increased when CM(+)

was prepared under co-treatment of RAW264 cells with lipopolysaccharide and a COX-2 inhibitor, celecoxib. We confirmed the decreased level of miR-7 by real-time RT–PCR in CM(+)- or CM(+) fraction <3 kDa-treated AZ521 cells (Figure 4e). These results indicate that small molecule(s) (<3 kDa) derived from activated macrophages are responsible for miR-7 repression in gastric cancer cells, and that such small molecule(s) are expressed in activated macrophages in a COX-2/PGE_2-independent manner.

Downregulation of miR-7 in the stomach by inflammatory responses

We next examined whether inflammatory responses are responsible for miR-7 downregulation in the stomach using different mouse models. The stomachs of wild-type mice were infected with *Helicobacter felis*, and submucosal inflammatory infiltration and mucosal macrophage accumulation were confirmed at 20 weeks after the infection (Figures 5a and b). Notably, the miR-7 expression level was significantly decreased in the *H. felis*-infected inflamed gastric mucosa (Figure 5c).

We recently showed that inflammatory responses and macrophage infiltration were suppressed in *K19-C2mE* mouse gastritis and *Gan* mouse tumors when mice were maintained under germfree conditions (Figure 5d and Oshima *et al.*, 2011). Notably, miR-7 expression levels were increased significantly in germfree *K19-C2mE* and *Gan* mice compared with the levels of mice maintained in a specific pathogen free (SPF) facility (Figure 5e). These *in vivo* experiments suggest that inflammatory responses are responsible for the miR-7 downregulation in the stomach, although further genetic studies are required to examine the role of macrophages in miR-7 downregulation.

Inflammation-dependent upregulation of miR-7 target genes in gastric tumors

The epidermal growth factor receptor (*EGFR*) mRNA is one of the miR-7 target genes (Kefas *et al.*, 2008;

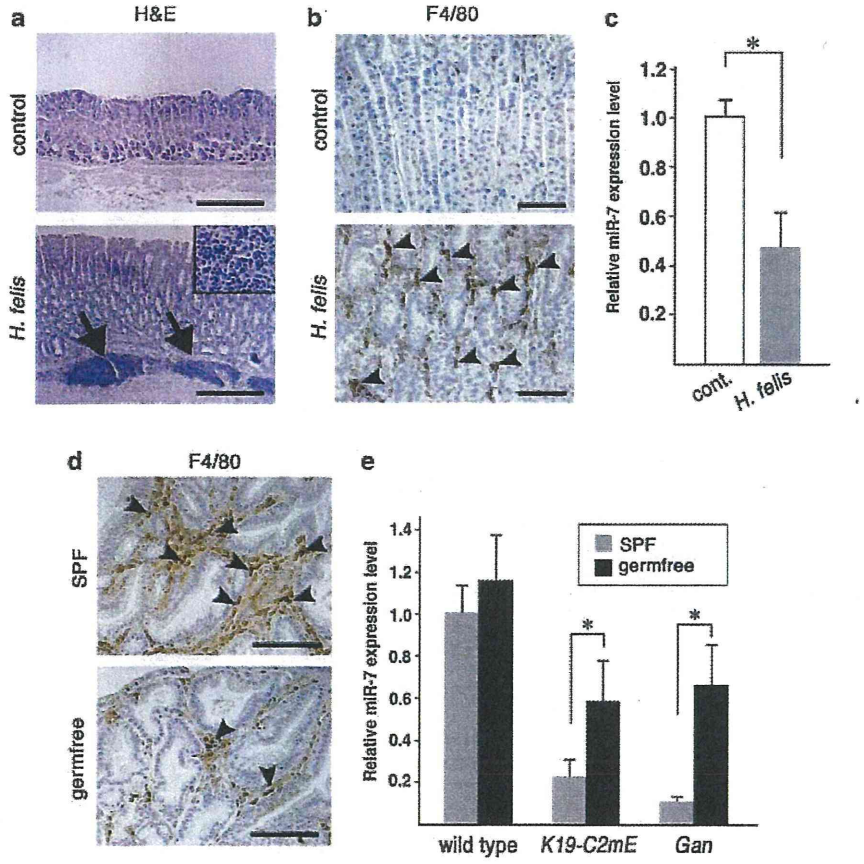

Figure 5 Inflammation-induced miR-7 repression in the mouse stomachs. (**a**) Histology of the wild-type mouse normal glandular stomach (top) and *H. felis*-infected inflamed glandular stomach (bottom). Arrows and inset indicate submucosal inflammatory cell infiltration. Scale bars indicate 0.5 mm. (**b**) Immunostaining of F4/80 in the normal glandular stomach (top) and *H. felis*-infected glandular stomach (bottom). Arrowheads indicate macrophages. Scale bars indicate 100 μm. (**c**) The miR-7 expression level of *H. felis*-infected gastric mucosa (gray bar) relative to that of the control stomach (open bar) is shown (mean ± s.d.). $*P<0.05$. (**d**) Immunostaining of F4/80 in a SPF control *Gan* mouse tumor (top) and a germfree *Gan* mouse tumor (bottom). Arrowheads indicate macrophages. Scale bars indicate 100 μm. (**e**) The expression levels of miR-7 in SPF (gray bars) and germfree (closed bars) K19-*C2mE* mouse gastritis and *Gan* mouse gastric tumors relative to the SPF wild-type stomach levels are shown (mean ± s.d.). $*P<0.05$. The expression levels of miR-7 were normalized to the Sno202 level.

Webster *et al.*, 2009). We thus examined *EGFR* expression levels in pre-miR-7-transfected Kato-III and AZ521 gastric cancer cells. As expected, the *EGFR* expression level was decreased significantly by pre-miR-7 transfection in both cell lines (Figure 6a), suggesting that suppression of *EGFR* expression is one of the tumor-suppressor mechanisms of miR-7 against gastric cancer development.

To identify novel miR-7 target genes that are upregulated in the inflammatory microenvironment,

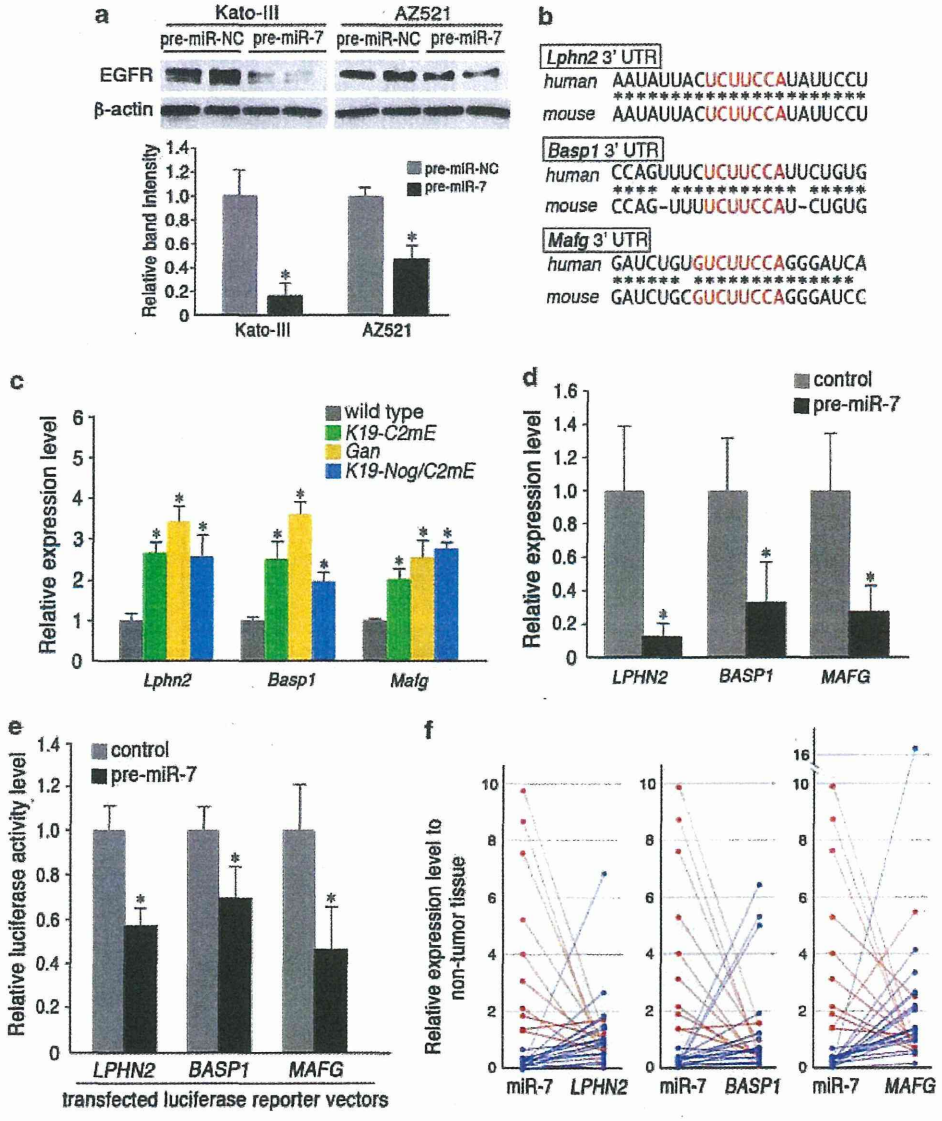

Figure 6 Inflammation-dependent upregulation of miR-7 target genes. (**a**) Representative results of the western blotting analysis of EGFR in Kato-III cells (top left) and AZ521 cells (top right) transfected with pre-miR-NC and pre-miR-7. The results for two independently prepared samples are shown. β-Actin was used as an internal control. The relative band intensities of the western blotting results are shown in the bar graph (mean ± s.d.) (bottom). $*P<0.05$ versus the control level. (**b**) Alignment of the miR-7 target sequences in the 3′-UTR of *Lphn2*, *Basp1* and *Mafg* in human and mouse mRNAs. The seed match sequences for miR-7 are indicated in red. (**c**) The expression levels of the indicated genes in *K19-C2mE* mouse gastritis (green bars), *Gan* mouse gastric tumors (yellow bars) and *K19-Nog/C2mE* mouse gastric hamartomas (blue bars) relative to the wild-type levels (gray bars) are shown (mean ± s.d.). $*P<0.05$ versus the wild-type level. The results were extracted from the microarray data set (Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO), accession GSE16902). (**d**) The expression levels of the indicated genes examined by real-time RT–PCR in pre-miR-7-transfected Kato-III cells (closed bar) relative to those of the control cells (gray bar) are shown (mean ± s.d.). $*P<0.05$ versus control level. (**e**) The relative luciferase activity levels of pre-miR-7-transfected reporter cells (closed bars) to the levels of control pre-miR-NC-transfected reporter cells (gray bars) are shown. The target genes for the respective luciferase reporter vectors are indicated. $*P<0.05$ versus the control level. (**f**) Comparison of the relative expression levels of miR-7 and *LPHN2* (left), *BASP1* (center) or *MAFG* (right) in human gastric cancers with non-tumor stomach levels is shown. Red and blue lines indicate that miR-7 was increased (>1.0) and decreased (<1.0) in gastric cancers, respectively. The expression levels of miR-7 were normalized to the U44 level.

we searched for putative miR-7 target genes from the upregulated gene set in both *K19-C2mE* mouse gastritis and *Gan* mouse gastric tumors using the results of the microarray analyses (Itadani *et al.*, 2009). We found that the *Lphn2*, *Basp1* and *Mafg* genes have conserved miR-7 target sequences in their 3′ untranslated region in both mouse and human mRNAs (Figure 6b). Notably, the expression of these genes was significantly increased not only in *K19-C2mE* mouse gastritis and *Gan* mouse tumors but also in *K19-Nog/C2mE* mouse gastric hamartomas (Figure 6c). The gastric mucosa and tumors in these strains are inflamed as a result of induction of the COX-2/PGE_2 pathway (Oshima *et al.*, 2004, 2006, 2009), suggesting that downregulation of miR-7 in inflammatory lesions is involved in upregulation of these genes. Notably, transfection of pre-miR-7 into Kato-III cells resulted in a significant decrease of *LPHN2*, *BASP1* and *MAFG* expressions (Figure 6d). Moreover, we constructed luciferase reporter plasmids that contained the 3′ untranslated region fragment of the putative miR-7 target genes, and transfected these vectors into Kato-III cells. Consistent with the real-time RT–PCR results, luciferase activities of reporter vector-transfected cells decreased significantly when cells were co-transfected with pre-miR-7 (Figure 6e). Taken together, these results indicate that these three genes are miR-7 targets.

Finally, we examined the expressions of *LPHN2*, *BASP1* and *MAFG* in human gastric cancers by real-time RT–PCR and compared their expressions with miR-7 expression levels. We found that expression levels of miR-7 and *LPHN2*, *BASP1* and *MAFG* were inversely correlated (Figure 6f). Accordingly, it is possible that inflammation causes induction of these genes in human gastric cancers through downregulation of miR-7, which may contribute to gastric tumorigenesis, although this will need to be investigated in future studies.

Discussion

It has been shown that miR-155 and miR-21, which function as oncogenes, are induced by inflammatory pathways, providing a link between inflammation and cancer (O'Connell *et al.*, 2007; Tili *et al.*, 2007; Iliopoulos *et al.*, 2010). Consistently, we found inflammation-dependent induction of miR-155 and miR-21 in mouse gastric tumors. On the other hand, miR-145 and miR-7, which function as tumor suppressors, are downregulated in both mouse gastritis and gastric tumor tissues. Moreover, we found that miR-7 levels are inversely correlated with the levels of proinflammatory cytokines, suggesting that the severity of inflammatory response is related to miR-7 downregulation. Therefore, it is possible that inflammation can promote tumorigenesis both by the upregulation of oncogenic miRNAs and by the downregulation of tumor-suppressor miRNAs, possibly through different mechanisms. Such alterations of cancer-related miRNA expression likely link inflammation and cancer.

It has been reported that miR-7 has a tumor-suppressor role in various cancers including brain tumors, breast cancer and lung cancer (Kefas *et al.*, 2008; Reddy *et al.*, 2008; Webster *et al.*, 2009), and we herein showed that miR-7 also functions as a tumor suppressor in gastric cancer. Interestingly, in the normal stomach, miR-7 expression is induced during the differentiation of gastric epithelial cells, suggesting a role of miR-7 in the regulation of epithelial cell differentiation. It has also been reported that miR-7 expression is induced during differentiation of intestinal epithelial cells (Nguyen *et al.*, 2010) and cortical neurons (Chen *et al.*, 2010). These results collectively suggest that miR-7 has a role in regulating cell differentiation in various organs. Therefore, it is conceivable that suppression of miR-7 expression is required for maintenance of the undifferentiated status of stem or progenitor cells in these organs.

These results suggest the possibility that inflammation suppresses epithelial cell differentiation through repression of miR-7. It is not surprising that the inflammatory response suppresses cell differentiation and enhances proliferation when regeneration is required in injured tissues. It has also been shown that a disruption of Toll-like receptor signaling causes an impairment of tissue repair by intestinal epithelial cells (Rakoff-Nahoum *et al.*, 2004). Moreover, activated macrophages are important niche components for intestinal epithelial progenitors in regenerative responses (Pull *et al.*, 2005). Therefore, it is conceivable that downregulation of miR-7 leads to suppression of differentiation, inducing the proliferation of undifferentiated epithelial cells in the inflammatory microenvironment.

Although several target genes of miR-7 have been identified, it is still unclear how miR-7 regulates differentiation. *EGFR* is one of the important miR-7 target genes, and is at least partially responsible for its tumor-suppressor role (Kefas *et al.*, 2008). Moreover, p21-activated kinase 1, Raf1, and the insulin-like growth factor 1 receptor have also been identified as miR-7 target genes that are upregulated in cancer cells (Reddy *et al.*, 2008; Webster *et al.*, 2009; Jiang *et al.*, 2010). Although most of these gene products contribute to cancer cell proliferation, we believe that miR-7 inhibits expression of other factors that have a role in the maintenance of the undifferentiated status of epithelial cells. In this study, we identified three novel miR-7 target genes that are upregulated in gastric cancers in an inflammation-dependent manner. LPHN2 is a G protein-coupled receptor that binds α-latrotoxin (Ichtchenko *et al.*, 1999), whereas BASP1 is implicated in neurite outgrowth (Korshunova *et al.*, 2008). MAFG is one of the small Maf proteins that is important for antioxidant responses (Katsuoka *et al.*, 2005). Although it remains to be investigated, it is of interest to examine whether these molecules have any role in the differentiation or tumorigenesis of gastric epithelial cells.

We examined the mechanisms responsible for miR-7 downregulation in gastric tumor cells. *Helicobacter pylori* infection induces chronic gastritis, resulting in induction of DNA methylation (Niwa *et al.*, 2010). The

expression of miR-34b/c is suppressed by DNA methylation in *H. pylori*-associated gastric cancer cells (Suzuki *et al.*, 2010). Moreover, H3K27me3 leads to tumor-suppressor gene silencing in cancer (Kondo *et al.*, 2008). However, we showed that downregulation of miR-7 is not caused by genomic deletion nor by epigenetic mechanisms, but through stimulation by macrophage-derived factor(s). Several mechanisms for the regulation of miR-7 expression have been reported. For example, miR-7 transcription is directly induced by HoxD10 (Reddy *et al.*, 2008) or c-Myc (Chou *et al.*, 2010). Splicing factor SF2/ASF binds the pri-miR-7 to enhance its cleavage by Drosha (Wu *et al.*, 2010). Accordingly, it is conceivable that macrophage-derived molecule(s) directly downregulate miR-7 expression or indirectly suppress miR-7 expression through modulation of these regulation systems. The identification of responsible macrophage-derived molecule(s) will provide a novel mechanism by which macrophages promote tumorigenesis.

In conclusion, we showed that inflammation simultaneously induces upregulation of oncogenic miRNAs and downregulation of tumor-suppressor miRNAs, which promote tumorigenesis. The expression of miR-7 is induced during differentiation of gastric epithelial cells, suggesting a role for miR-7 in the regulation of epithelial cell differentiation. Accordingly, it is possible that the downregulation of miR-7 contributes to suppression of differentiation, resulting in the promotion of gastric tumorigenesis. Moreover, small molecule(s) expressed by activated macrophages are responsible for miR-7 repression, providing a link between inflammation and cancer. Therefore, miR-7 may be useful for devising a new preventive or therapeutic strategy against gastric cancer through the induction of cancer cell differentiation.

Materials and methods

Mouse models

Construction of *K19-C2mE* and *Gan* (*K19-Wnt1/C2mE*) mice was described previously (Oshima *et al.*, 2004, 2006). In brief, *K19-C2mE* mice express *Ptgs2* and *Ptges* in gastric epithelial cells, whereas *Gan* mice express *Ptgs2*, *Ptges* and *Wnt1*. For expression analyses, *K19-C2mE* mouse gastritis and *Gan* mouse gastric tumor samples, and wild-type mouse stomach tissues were obtained at 30–40 weeks of age. Germfree mouse colonies were constructed as described previously (Oshima *et al.*, 2011), and the histology and miR-7 expression were examined at 55 weeks of age ($n=5$). *H. felis* (American Type Culture Collection 49179, ATCC, Manassas, VA, USA) were inoculated at 10^8 per mouse into wild-type mice at 6–8 weeks of age, and the histology and miRNA expression were examined at 20 weeks after infection ($n=6$). All animal experiments were carried out according to a protocol approved by the Committee on Animal Experimentation of the Kanazawa University.

Microarray analysis

Total RNA was extracted from mouse stomachs ($n=3$) using ISOGEN (Nippon Gene, Tokyo, Japan), pooled with the same genotype mouse RNAs, labeled with Cy3 and hybridized to Mouse miRNA microarray Rel. 12.0 (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA, USA). The raw data were normalized using the GeneSpring GX software program (Agilent Technologies), and expression levels of miRNAs in gastritis and gastric tumor tissues were compared with those in the wild-type mouse stomach. Transcripts with low signals (less than threefold of the background level) were not used for further analyses. The expression of miRNAs was further examined by real-time RT–PCR using RNA samples independently prepared from a different set of wild-type, *K19-C2mE* and *Gan* mice ($n=5$ for each genotype).

The results of cDNA microarray data sets of *K19-C2mE*, *Gan* and *K19-Nog/C2mE* mice were deposited into the Gene Expression Omnibus, as accession number GSE16902 (Itadani *et al.*, 2009), and were searched for the presence of novel miR-7 target genes using the TargetScan 5.1 program (MIT, Cambridge, MA, USA) (http://www.targetscan.org).

Real-time RT–PCR

Paired gastric cancer and non-tumor stomach tissue samples were obtained from 28 patients during surgery at the Kanazawa University Hospital, Japan. Fresh frozen tissues were used for expression analyses. Clinicopathological data of patients are shown in Supplementary Table 3. Human normal gastric epithelial cells were prepared by isolating the gastric glands from normal stomach tissues ($n=4$) as described previously (Cheng *et al.*, 1984). Approval for this project was obtained from the Kanazawa University Medical Ethics Committee, and written informed consent was obtained before specimen collection. Mouse stomachs were obtained from E15 wild-type mouse embryos, and day 0, day 7, day 14 and adult mice ($n=3$ for each). Total RNAs were extracted from tissues or cells using ISOGEN (Nippon Gene), and cDNAs for miRNAs and mRNAs were constructed using QuantiMir RT kit (System Bioscience, Mountain View, CA, USA) and the PrimeScript RT reagent Kit (Takara, Tokyo, Japan), respectively. Real-time RT–PCR was performed using SYBR Premix Ex TaqII (Takara, Tokyo, Japan) and Stratagene Mx3000P (Agilent Technologies). Sno202 and U44 were used as endogenous miRNA controls for mice and humans, respectively, whereas β-actin was used for endogenous mRNA control. The primer sequences for the miRNAs are shown in Supplementary Table 4. The primers for mRNAs were purchased from Takara.

Cell culture experiments

Mouse glandular stomachs were treated with 0.1% collagenase for 30 min at 37 °C, followed by centrifugation at 20 *g* for 3 min to isolate gastric glands. For the primary culture, isolated gastric glands were digested with trypsin and seeded on collagen-coated dishes as described previously (Oshima *et al.*, 2004). On day 2, the primary cultured cells were treated with 10 mM EDTA-phosphate-buffered saline and passaged. The primary cultured cells on day 2 (P0) and day 6 (P1) were used for the expression analysis. Human gastric cancer cell lines, AGS (ATCC), AZ521, MKN74, MKN45, NUGC4, HCT-111-TC, SH-10-TC (RIKEN BioResource Center, Tsukuba, Japan), Kato-III and MKN7 (Cell Resource Center for Biomedical Research, Tohoku University, Japan) were used in this study.

The pre-miR miRNA-7 (Pre-miR-7), pre-miR negative control (Pre-miR-NC) and anti-miR-7 inhibitor (Ambion, Austin, TX, USA) were used for transfection. The cell proliferation rate was measured using the Cell Counting Kit-8 (Dojindo, Kumamoto, Japan). For the soft agar colony

formation assay, cells were suspended in culture medium with 0.33% agar, and seeded in a 6-well plate. After 21 days of culture, soft agar was stained with Giemsa solution (Wako, Osaka, Japan).

Histological and immunohistochemical analyses
Tissues were fixed in 4% paraformaldehyde, embedded and sectioned at 4-μm thickness. Sections were stained with hematoxylin and eosin. Antibodies against Ki-67 (DakoCytomation, Carpenteria, CA, USA) and F4/80 (Serotec, Oxford, UK) were used as the primary antibodies. Immunostaining signals were visualized using the Vectastain Elite Kit (Vector Laboratories, Burlingame, CA, USA), and the MOM kit (Vector Laboratories) was used to minimize the background staining signals.

Methylation-specific PCR analysis
The methylation status of miR-7-1 in human gastric cancer and non-tumor tissues was examined by methylation-specific PCR analysis as described previously (Yamashita *et al.*, 2008). Methylation-specific PCR was performed with a primer set specific for the methylated or unmethylated sequence (Me or Un set in Supplementary Table 4). DNA methylated by SssI methylase (New England Biolabs, Ipswich, MA, USA) and DNA amplified by a GenomiPhi DNA amplification kit (GE Healthcare, Buckinghamshire, UK) were used as methylated and unmethylated controls, respectively.

Chromatin immunoprecipitation analyses
Histone modifications were examined by chromatin immunoprecipitation assay as described previously (Yamashita *et al.*, 2008; Takeshima *et al.*, 2009). In brief, gastric epithelial cells of wild-type, *K19-C2mE* and *Gan* mice ($n=3$ for each genotype) were cross-linked with 1% formaldehyde, and sheared chromatin by Bioruptor UCD-250 (Cosmo Bio, Tokyo, Japan). The samples were incubated with an antibody against H3K27me3 (07-449, Millipore, Billerica, MA, USA), and genomic DNA samples were used for the quantitative chromatin immunoprecipitation-PCR analyses. The primer set was designed for the upstream CpG islands of miR-7-1 (Supplementary Table 4).

Luciferase reporter assay
Constructions of the miR-7 luciferase reporter vector (miR-7 Luc) and control vector (control Luc) are shown in Supplementary Figure 1. Luciferase reporter vectors for the *LPHN2*, *BASP1* and *MAFG* genes were constructed by subcloning 3′ untranslated region fragments of the respective human genes into the pGL3 plasmid (Promega, Madison, WI, USA). PCR primer sequences for cloning 3′ untranslated region of the respective genes and amplified fragment lengths are indicated in Supplementary Table 4. The luciferase activity was measured using a Luciferase Assay System (Promega), and the levels were normalized to the total protein levels detected using the Pierce 660 nm Protein Assay (Thermo Scientific, Yokohama, Japan). RAW264 cells (RIKEN BioResource Center) and mouse intraperitoneal macrophages were stimulated with 10 ng/ml lipopolysaccharide (Sigma, St Louis, MO, USA) for 24 h and the conditioned medium was collected as CM(+). The conditioned medium of unstimulated macrophages was collected as CM(−). The conditioned medium of lipopolysaccharide-stimulated and COX-2 inhibitor celecoxib-treated (Pfizer, New York, NY, USA) (10 μM) RAW264 cells was collected as CM(+/coxib). CM(+) was fractionated by ultrafiltration using Centricon Plus-70 (Millipore) to prepare CM(+) >100 kDa, 30–100 kDa, 3–30 kDa and <3 kDa. Cells were stimulated with CM at a 50% concentration.

Western blotting analysis
Cells were transfected with pre-miR-7 or pre-miR-NC, lysed at 24 h after transfection, and 10 μg of protein was separated in 7.5% SDS-polyacrylamide gels. An antibody against EGFR (Cell Signaling Technology, Danvers, MA, USA) was used as the primary antibody. Anti-β-actin (Sigma) was used as an internal control. The ECL detection system (GE Healthcare) was used to detect the signals, and band intensities were quantified using the ImageJ application (NIH, Bethesda, MD, USA).

Statistical analysis
The data were analyzed by the unpaired *t*-test using the Microsoft Excel software program (Microsoft). A value of $P<0.05$ was considered to be statistically significant.

Conflict of interest

The authors declare no conflict of interest.

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REVIEW

The inflammatory network in the gastrointestinal tumor microenvironment: lessons from mouse models

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Abstract Accumulating evidence has indicated that inflammatory responses are important for cancer development. Epidemiological studies have shown that regular use of non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs) reduces the risk of colon cancer development. Subsequently, mouse genetic studies have shown that cyclooxygenase (COX)-2, one of the target molecules of NSAIDs, and its downstream product, prostaglandin E_2 (PGE_2), play an important role in gastrointestinal tumorigenesis. Bacterial infection stimulates the Toll-like receptor (TLR)/MyD88 pathway in tumor tissues, which leads to the induction of COX-2 in stromal cells, including macrophages. Induction of the COX-2/PGE_2 pathway in tumor stroma is important for the development and maintenance of an inflammatory microenvironment in gastrointestinal tumors. In such a microenvironment, tumor-associated macrophages express proinflammatory cytokines, including tumor necrosis factor (TNF)-α and interleukin (IL)-6, and these cytokines, respectively, activate the nuclear factor (NF)-κB and Stat3 transcription factors in epithelial cells, as well as in stromal cells. Recent mouse studies have uncovered the role of such an inflammatory network in the promotion of gastrointestinal tumor development. Genetically engineered and chemically induced mouse tumor models which mimic sporadic or inflammation-associated tumorigenesis were used in these studies. In this review article, we focus on mouse genetic studies using these tumor models, which have contributed to the elucidation of the molecular mechanisms associated with the inflammatory network in gastrointestinal tumors, and we also discuss the role of each pathway in cancer development. The involvement of immune cells such as macrophages, mast cells, and regulatory T cells in tumor promotion is also discussed.

Keywords Gastrointestinal cancer · Inflammation · COX-2 · NF-κB · Stat3

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Introduction

About 150 years ago, Rudolf Virchow described the presence of leukocytes in tumors, and hypothesized that the origin of cancer was at the site of chronic inflammation. It has been reported that chronic infections are associated with 15–20% of malignant cancers [1, 2]. The principal infectious agents are *Helicobacter pylori*, hepatitis B and C viruses, and the human papilloma virus, which are closely associated with gastric cancer, hepatocellular carcinoma, and cervical cancer, respectively. Moreover, about 30% of all cancers have been attributed to smoking and 20% to obesity [3], and it has been shown that both tobacco smoke and obesity can trigger inflammatory responses in the lungs and liver, respectively, which promote tumorigenesis [4, 5]. These results, together with those of other recent studies (reviewed in [6–8]), indicate that inflammation plays an important role in promoting cancer development, and "tumor-promoting inflammation" is now included in the next generation of the criteria considered to be "hallmarks of cancer" [9].

Epidemiological studies have revealed that regular use of non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs (NSAIDs) lowers the mortality rate from cancers in the gastrointestinal tract [10, 11]. The target molecules of NSAIDs are cyclooxygenase (COX)-1 and COX-2, and accumulating evidence has indicated that COX-2 and its downstream product, prostaglandin E_2 (PGE_2), play an important role in cancer

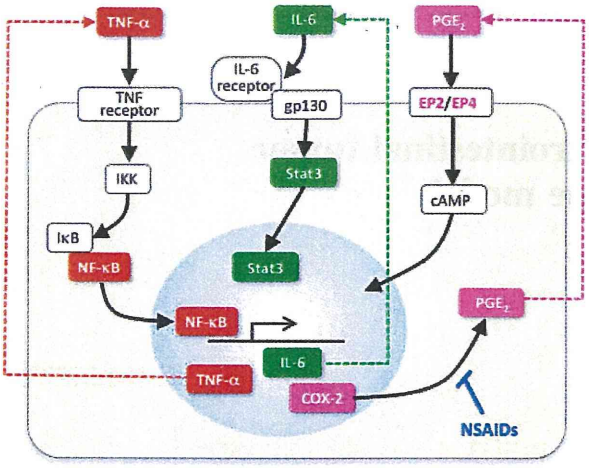

Fig. 1 The interaction of the cyclooxygenase-2 (*COX-2*)/prostaglandin E_2 (PGE_2), tumor necrosis factor-α (*TNF-α*)/nuclear factor-κB (*NF-κB*), and interleukin-6 (*IL-6*)/gp130/Stat3 pathways in the inflammatory environment. *cAMP* cyclic AMP, *IKK* inhibitor of κB kinase, *IκB* inhibitor of κB, *NSAIDs* non-steroidal anti-inflammatory drugs

development [12, 13]. On the other hand, proinflammatory cytokines are expressed in the tumor microenvironment, and such cytokine signaling is also important for cancer development through the activation of downstream transcription factors [6]. Among them, tumor necrosis factor (TNF)-α and interleukin (IL)-6 activate nuclear factor (NF)-κB and Stat3, respectively, and both the TNF-α/NF-κB and IL-6/Stat3 pathways have been shown to be important for the development of inflammation-associated intestinal tumorigenesis [7, 8]. Moreover, NF-κB induces the expression of COX-2, IL-6, and TNF-α. Accordingly, these signaling pathways construct an inflammatory network in the tumor microenvironment, which plays an important role in tumor promotion (Fig. 1). In this review, we discuss the roles of these inflammatory pathways in gastrointestinal tumorigenesis, which have been identified by a number of mouse model studies, as listed in Table 1.

Mouse models of gastrointestinal cancer

The roles of inflammatory responses in gastrointestinal cancers have been studied using several tumor mouse models (Table 1). $Apc^{\Delta 716}$ knockout mice and Apc^{Min} mice carry heterozygous truncation mutations at codons 716 and 850 of the mouse *Apc* gene, respectively, and somatic deletion of the wild-type *Apc* gene results in the activation of Wnt/β-catenin signaling, which causes tumor development in the entire intestinal tract [14, 15]. Approximately 80% of colorectal cancers harbor *APC* gene mutations and half of the remainder have mutations in *Ctnnb1* gene encoding β-catenin, both of which activate Wnt/β-catenin signaling [16–18]. Thus, $Apc^{\Delta 716}$ and Apc^{Min} mice recapitulate the molecular mechanism of sporadic colon cancer development. Several other types of *Apc* mutant mice also develop intestinal polyposis (as described in this review and Table 1).

On the other hand, inflammatory bowel diseases (IBDs), including ulcerative colitis (UC) and Crohn's disease (CD), are also risk factors for colorectal cancer [19, 20]. IBD-related colon cancers are associated with a severe inflammatory response, which is an important microenvironment required for inflammation-associated tumor development. The treatment of mice with a genotoxic chemical carcinogen, azoxymethane (AOM), followed by a non-genotoxic agent, dextran sodium sulfate (DSS), induces the development of colitis-associated colon cancer (CAC) [21]. Mutations in *Ctnnb1* gene induced by AOM result in the activation of the Wnt/β-catenin pathway, which is thought to trigger tumor initiation [22]. On the other hand, DSS induces colonic inflammation in rodents, which is required for tumor promotion. Accordingly, the AOM/DSS model is a well-established and widely used mouse model for CAC development, and it mimics IBD-related colon cancer (Table 1). *Rag2* gene-deficient mice lack functional lymphocytes, and are susceptible to infection-induced inflammation in the colon. When *Rag2*−/− mice are infected with the enteric bacterial pathogen, *Helicobacter hepaticus*, the mice rapidly develop CAC [23, 24]. This model system is also used for IBD-related colon cancer (Table 1).

Activation of Wnt/β-catenin signaling is found in approximately 30–50% of gastric cancers, suggesting a causal role of Wnt signaling in a subpopulation of gastric cancers [25, 26]. On the other hand, *Helicobacter pylori* infection is an important risk factor for gastric cancer [27]. In *H. pylori*-associated gastritis, COX-2 expression is induced significantly, whereas its level is decreased by *H. pylori* eradication [28, 29]. Two transgenic mouse strains, *K19-Wnt1* mice expressing *Wnt1* in the stomach, and *K19-C2mE* mice expressing *Ptgs2* and *Ptges* that encode COX-2 and microsomal PGE synthase-1 (mPGES-1), mimic Wnt activation and *H. pylori*-induced inflammation, respectively, in the stomach [26, 29–31]. *Gan* mice, which are compound transgenic mice with *K19-Wnt1* and *K19-C2mE*, express *Wnt1*, *Ptgs2*, and *Ptges* simultaneously in the gastric mucosa, resulting in the activation of both Wnt signaling and the COX-2/PGE_2 pathways, as found in human gastric cancer. *Gan* mice are thus used as a model of inflammation-associated gastric tumors [26, 30, 31] (Table 1).

The COX-2/PGE_2/EP2 pathway in gastrointestinal tumorigenesis

It has been demonstrated that treatment of familial adenomatous polyposis (FAP) patients with NSAIDs results in

Table 1 Mouse model studies performed to examine inflammatory networks in gastrointestinal tumorigenesis

Tumor model	Mouse line crossed/treatment	Tumor phenotype changes	References
Sporadic intestinal tumor model (*Apc* mutant mice)			
$Apc^{\Delta 716}$	*Ptgs2*[a] knockout mice	Suppression of intestinal polyposis	[34]
Apc^{Min}	*Ptgs1*[b], *Ptgs2* knockout mice	Suppression of intestinal polyposis	[35]
Apc^{Min}	*Hpgd*[c] knockout mice	Increase of colon polyps	[36]
AOM	*Ptgs2* transgenic mice	Increase of intestinal tumor	[37]
$Apc^{\Delta 716}$	*Ptger2*[d] knockout mice	Suppression of intestinal polyposis	[38]
		Inhibition of angiogenesis	[39]
Apc^{Min}	PGE_2 treatment	Promotion of intestinal polyposis	[40]
$Apc^{\Delta 14}$	*Ptges*[e] knockout mice	Suppression of intestinal polyposis	[44]
AOM	*Ptges* knockout mice	Suppression of intestinal polyposis	[45]
Apc^{Min}	*Myd88*[f] knockout mice	Suppression of intestinal polyposis	[63, 64]
		Epithelial expression of MyD88 is important	
$Apc^{\Delta 716}$	*op/op* (macrophage-deficient)	Suppression of intestinal polyposis	[93]
$Apc^{\Delta 468}$	$Kit^{W/W}$ (mast cell-deficient)	Suppression of intestinal polyposis	[76]
$Apc^{\Delta 468}$	*Rag2−/−* (lymphocyte-deficient)	Not affected	
$Apc^{\Delta 468}$	Anti-TNF-α antibody	Suppression of intestinal polyposis	
Apc^{Min}	$CD4^+$ $CD25^+$ T cell transfer	Suppression of intestinal polyposis	[94, 95]
		IL-10 expression in T cells is required	
Apc^{Min}	*Il17a*[g] knockout mice	Suppression of intestinal polyposis	[97]
Inflammation-associated colon tumor model (AOM/DSS-CAC model mice)			
AOM/DSS	*Tlr4* [h] knockout mice	Suppression of CAC development	[60, 62]
		Epithelial expression of TLR4 is important	
AOM/DSS	*Ptgs2* knockout mice	Exacerbation of CAC development	[68, 69]
AOM/DSS	*Ikbkb*[i] conditional KO	Suppression of CAC development	[72]
		Epithelial and myeloid expression is important	
AOM/DSS	*Tnfrsf1a*[j] knockout mice	Suppression of CAC development	[73]
		Myeloid expression of TNF-Rp55 is important	
AOM/DSS	$Ccr2^k$ knockout mice	Suppression of CAC development	[74]
		Less macrophage infiltration	
AOM/DSS	*Il6* [l] knockout mice	Suppression of CAC development	[82]
AOM/DSS	$gp130^{757F/F}$	Suppression of CAC development	[81]
AOM/DSS	*Stat3* conditional KO	Suppression of CAC development	[81, 82]
		Epithelial expression of Stat3 is important	
H. hepaticus infected Rag2−/−	$CD4^+$ $CD25^+$ T-cell transfer	Suppression of CAC development	[23, 24]
		IL-10 expression in T cells is required	
Gastritis and gastric tumor model			
K19-Wnt1	*K19-C2mE*	Gastric tumor development (*Gan* mice)	[26, 30, 31]
Gan	Celecoxib, EP4 inhibitor	Suppression of gastric tumorigenesis	[48, 49]
Gan	Clodronate liposome (macrophage-deficient)	Atrophic changes of tumor cells	[49]
K19-C2mE	*Tnf*[m] knockout mice	Suppression of gastritis/hyperplasia	[78]
K19-C2mE	*Rag2* knockout mice	Not affected	
$gp130^{757F/F}$	*Il11ra1*[n] knockout mice	Suppression of gastric tumorigenesis	[88]

AOM azoxymethane *DSS* dextran sodium sulfate, *CAC* colitis-associated colon cancer, *IL* interleukin, *TNF* tumor necrosis factor, *COX* cyclooxygenase, *15-PGDH* 15-hydroxyprostaglandin dehydrogenase, *TLR* Toll-like receptor, *mPGES-1* microsomal PGE synthase-1, *KO* knockout. Gene symbols used are: [a]COX-2, [b]COX-1, [c]15-PGDH, [d]PGE_2 receptor EP2, [e]mPGES-1, [f]MyD88, [g]IL-17A, [h]TLR-4, [i]IKKβ, [j]TNF-Rp55, [k]CCR2, [l]IL-6, [m]TNF-α, and [n]IL-11 receptor-α

significant regression of colon polyps [32]. Moreover, a large number of animal experiments have shown that treatment with NSAIDs suppressed chemical carcinogen-induced colon tumorigenesis [33]. As a target molecule of NSAIDs, the inducible enzyme COX-2 plays an important role in inflammation and cancer, while COX-1 is expressed constitutively and functions as a house-keeping gene. Importantly, disruption of *Ptgs2* gene in $Apc^{\Delta 716}$ mice and Apc^{Min} mice resulted in a significant suppression of intestinal tumorigenesis, thus indicating an essential role of COX-2 in intestinal polyp development [34, 35]. Interestingly, disruption of *Ptgs1* gene encoding COX-1 also suppressed intestinal tumorigenesis [35]. It is possible that COX-1-derived prostaglandins are required for tumor cell proliferation during the initial stage when COX-2 expression is not yet induced [33]. Other lines of genetic evidence also support the role of the COX-2 pathway in intestinal tumorigenesis. Prostaglandins are catalyzed and inactivated by 15-hydroxyprostaglandin dehydrogenase (15-PGDH). The number of colon polyps in Apc^{Min} mice was markedly increased when *Hpgd* gene encoding 15-PGDH was disrupted, suggesting that PGE_2 has a role in colon tumorigenesis [36]. Moreover, the transgenic expression of *Ptgs2* in the mouse intestine accelerated chemical carcinogen-induced tumorigenesis [37].

COX-2 catalyzes the synthesis of prostaglandin (PG) H_2, which is then converted to PGE_2. There are four G protein-coupled receptors for PGE_2; EP1, EP2, EP3, and EP4. Notably, disruption of *Ptger2* gene encoding EP2 caused significant suppression of intestinal polyposis in $Apc^{\Delta 716}$ mice, whereas suppression of EP1 or EP3 signaling did not affect tumorigenesis [38]. EP2 signaling increases the expression of vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) and basic fibroblast growth factor (bFGF), which enhances angiogenesis in intestinal tumors [39]. Moreover, treatment of Apc^{Min} mice with PGE_2 increased the development of intestinal tumors through the activation of peroxisome proliferators-activated receptor (PPAR) δ, which promotes the survival of tumor cells [40]. Furthermore, PGE_2 signaling through the EP2 receptor has been shown to activate Wnt/β-catenin signaling directly in colon cancer cells by the suppression of β-catenin phosphorylation [41]. Accordingly, it is possible that the COX-2/PGE_2 pathway contributes to intestinal tumorigenesis through a variety of PGE_2 functions [12, 13] (Fig. 2).

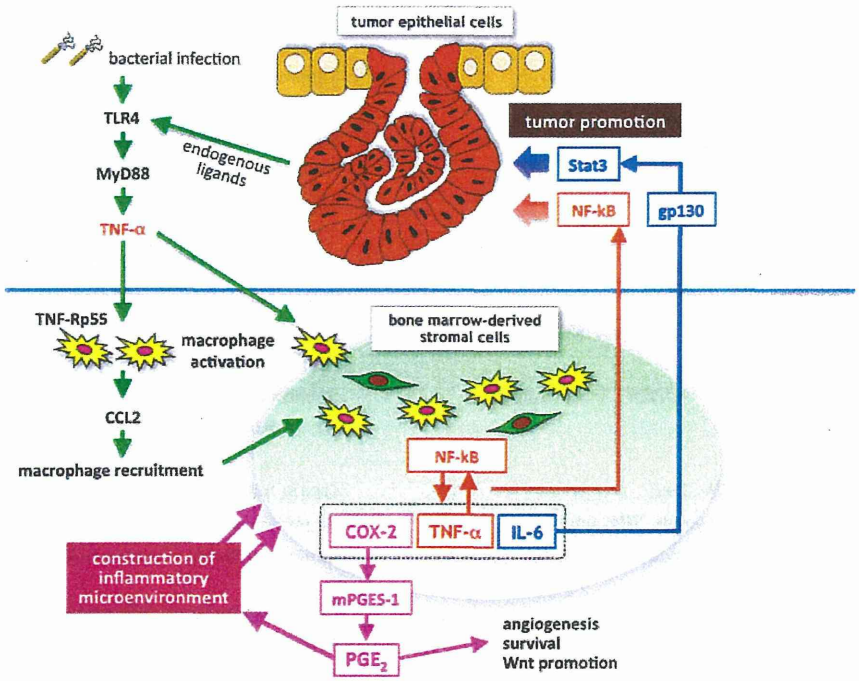

Fig. 2 A schematic diagram of the inflammatory microenvironment in gastrointestinal tumor tissues. Bacterial infection or endogenous ligand activates the Toll-like receptor (*TLR*)/MyD88 pathway in epithelial cells, which further activate stromal macrophages inducing CCL2. In the activated macrophages, NF-κB induces the expression of COX-2, IL-6, and TNF-α itself. The COX-2/PGE_2 pathway is important for the construction and maintenance of the inflammatory network, and PGE_2 accelerates angiogenesis, cell survival, and Wnt activation. TNF-α activates NF-κB in both epithelial cells and stromal macrophages, whereas IL-6 activates Stat3 in epithelial cells through gp130. NF-κB and Stat3 play an important role in the promotion of tumorigenesis through suppression of apoptosis and acceleration of the cell cycle. *mPGES-1* Microsomal PGE synthase-1